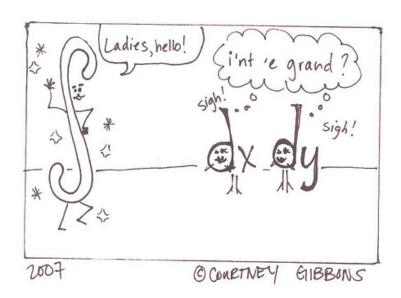
Integrals: Part 1

David Carlson

2021

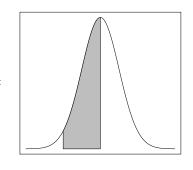
Integrals 1: Part 1

Integrals 1: Part 1

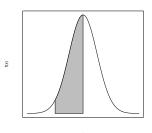


Some motivation

If you were trying to find the area of a rectangle or in a trapezoid, you would have no problem. But what if you were trying to find the area under a curve like this?



х



- This is an important question, because the above function is a drawing of the normal distribution – the most commonly used probabilty function in all of statistics.
- ▶ The above picture is essentially asking the question: what is the probabilty (i.e., f(x)) of observing a value of x between -2 and 0?

Why are we doing this?

► The answer, as it turns out, is sometimes very difficult to get. Nonetheless it is very important.

Why are we doing this?

- ► The answer, as it turns out, is sometimes very difficult to get. Nonetheless it is very important.
- ➤ You will be doing a lot of integration in statistics (especially if you venture into Bayesian statistics). And there are many, many applications of this technique in game theory.

Why are we doing this?

- ► The answer, as it turns out, is sometimes very difficult to get. Nonetheless it is very important.
- You will be doing a lot of integration in statistics (especially if you venture into Bayesian statistics). And there are many, many applications of this technique in game theory.
- ▶ But in general, you will *always* be using these techniques for one of these two goals:
 - Finding the area under a curve
 - Finding a function given its derivative.

▶ Be aware that integrating a function is sometimes (usually?) hard.

- ▶ Be aware that integrating a function is sometimes (usually?) hard.
- Sometimes it is impossible.
 - ► There are many important functions (e.g., the normal probability density function) whose indefinite integral has never been derived.
 - Bayesian statistics was held back for hundreds of years by the difficulties of integrating until computational methods such as MCMC for approximating solutions were developed and refined in the 1990s.

- ▶ Be aware that integrating a function is sometimes (usually?) hard.
- Sometimes it is impossible.
 - ► There are many important functions (e.g., the normal probability density function) whose indefinite integral has never been derived.
 - Bayesian statistics was held back for hundreds of years by the difficulties of integrating until computational methods such as MCMC for approximating solutions were developed and refined in the 1990s.
- Don't expect solutions to integrals to jump off the page for you.
 - Focus on understanding the basic concept.
 - ► Then starting develop a library of "tricks" that mathematicians frequently use to solve these kinds of problems.

- ▶ Be aware that integrating a function is sometimes (usually?) hard.
- Sometimes it is impossible.
 - ► There are many important functions (e.g., the normal probability density function) whose indefinite integral has never been derived.
 - Bayesian statistics was held back for hundreds of years by the difficulties of integrating until computational methods such as MCMC for approximating solutions were developed and refined in the 1990s.
- Don't expect solutions to integrals to jump off the page for you.
 - Focus on understanding the basic concept.
 - Then starting develop a library of "tricks" that mathematicians frequently use to solve these kinds of problems.
 - You will get better with practice.

The anti-derivative

Sometimes we're interested in finding the function f for which g is its derivative. We refer to f as the antiderivative of g.

The anti-derivative

- Sometimes we're interested in finding the function f for which g is its derivative. We refer to f as the **antiderivative** of g.
- Let DF be the derivative of F. And let DF(x) be the derivative of F evaluated at x.
 - Then the antiderivative is denoted by D^{-1} (i.e., the inverse derivative). If DF = f, then $F = D^{-1}f$.
 - In words, we need something that will go backwards. It takes in a function, and tells you what it was before it was differentiated.

The anti-derivative

- Sometimes we're interested in finding the function f for which g is its derivative. We refer to f as the **antiderivative** of g.
- ▶ Let DF be the derivative of F. And let DF(x) be the derivative of F evaluated at x.
 - Then the antiderivative is denoted by D^{-1} (i.e., the inverse derivative). If DF = f, then $F = D^{-1}f$.
 - ▶ In words, we need something that will go backwards. It takes in a function, and tells you what it was before it was differentiated.
- ▶ **Indefinite Integral**: Equivalently, if *F* is the antiderivative of *f*, then *F* is also called the indefinite integral of *f* and written

$$F(x) = \int f(x) dx$$

$$\int \frac{1}{x^2} dx = -\frac{1}{x} + c$$

$$\int \frac{1}{x^2} dx = -\frac{1}{x} + c$$

Notice that while there is only a single derivative for any function, there are multiple antiderivatives: one for any arbitrary constant c. c just shifts the curve up or down on the y-axis.

$$\int \frac{1}{x^2} dx = -\frac{1}{x} + c$$

- Notice that while there is only a single derivative for any function, there are multiple antiderivatives: one for any arbitrary constant c. c just shifts the curve up or down on the y-axis.
- ▶ If more info is present about the antiderivative e.g., that it passes through a particular point — then we can solve for a specific value of c.

$$\int 3e^{3x} dx =$$

$$\int 3e^{3x}dx = e^{3x} + c$$

$$\int 3e^{3x}dx = e^{3x} + c$$

 $\int (x^2-4)dx=$

 $\int 3e^{3x}dx = e^{3x} + c$

 $\int (x^2 - 4) dx = \frac{1}{3}x^3 - 4x + c$

$$\int af(x)dx = a\int f(x)dx$$

1.

$$\int af(x)dx = a\int f(x)dx$$

$$\int [f(x) + g(x)]dx = \int f(x)dx + \int g(x)dx$$

1.

$$\int af(x)dx = a \int f(x)dx$$

2.

$$\int [f(x) + g(x)]dx = \int f(x)dx + \int g(x)dx$$

$$\int x^n dx = \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} + c$$

$$\int af(x)dx = a \int f(x)dx$$

$$\int [f(x) + g(x)]dx = \int f(x)dx + \int g(x)dx$$

$$\int x^n dx = \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} + c$$

$$\int e^x dx = e^x + c$$

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln x + c$$

5.

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln x + c$$

$$\int e^{f(x)}f'(x)dx = e^{f(x)} + c$$

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln x + c$$

$\int e^{f(x)}f'(x)dx = e^{f(x)} + c$

 $\int [f(x)]^n f'(x) dx = \frac{1}{n+1} [f(x)]^{n+1} + c$



6.





$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln x + c$$

 $\int e^{f(x)}f'(x)dx = e^{f(x)} + c$

 $\int \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} dx = \ln f(x) + c$

$$\int [f(x)]^n f'(x) dx = \frac{1}{n+1} [f(x)]^{n+1} + c$$

$$\int 3x^2 dx = 3 \int x^2 dx$$

$$\int 3x^2 dx = 3 \int x^2 dx$$
$$= 3 \left(\frac{1}{3}x^3\right) + c$$

$$\int 3x^2 dx = 3 \int x^2 dx$$
$$= 3 \left(\frac{1}{3}x^3\right) + c$$
$$= x^3 + c$$

$$\int 3x^2 dx = 3 \int x^2 dx$$
$$= 3 \left(\frac{1}{3}x^3\right) + c$$
$$= x^3 + c$$

$$\int (2x+1)dx = \int 2xdx + \int 1dx$$

$$\int (2x+1)dx = \int 2xdx + \int 1dx$$
$$= x^2 + x + c$$

$$\int e^x e^{e^x} dx =$$

$$\int e^{x}e^{e^{x}}dx=e^{e^{x}}+c$$

Discussion

Note that in many cases, you just need to "see" the solution. This is where the practice comes in handy.

Discussion

- Note that in many cases, you just need to "see" the solution. This is where the practice comes in handy.
- ➤ You will want to do a lot to "simplify" the problems (in your head or on paper) and take things in stages.

Discussion

- Note that in many cases, you just need to "see" the solution. This is where the practice comes in handy.
- ➤ You will want to do a lot to "simplify" the problems (in your head or on paper) and take things in stages.
- ► So you can make this

$$\int e^x e^{e^x} dx = e^{e^x} + c$$

into this

$$\int f(x)e^{f(x)}dx = e^{f(x)} + c$$

Solve these indefinite integrals

 $\int 3x^{1/3} dx$

2.

 $\int -1dx$

3.

4.

5.

 $\int -3 + 4x dx$ $\int 4x + 3dx$

 $\int 3x^2 dx$

6.

8.

9.

10.

$$\int 5x^4 - x - 4dx$$

 $\int -2x + 3 - 4x^3 dx$

$$\int 5x^5 dx$$

$$\int 4x^4 + 3x^3 + 2x^2 + x + 1dx$$

 $\int x^{-1} + 3x^2 dx$

12.

13.

 $\int e^{5x} dx$

 $\int \frac{5}{x^3} + \frac{5}{x} + e^x dx$

 $\int x^{100} + 3e^x - 7(4^x) dx$



The definite integral

The other major way we are going to use integrals, is to find the area under a curve between two specific points.

Reimann Sum

Suppose we want to determine the area A(R) of a region R defined by a curve f(x) and some interval $a \le x \le b$.

Reimann Sum

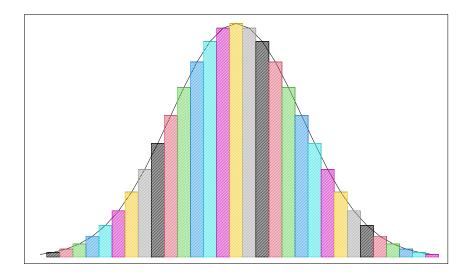
- Suppose we want to determine the area A(R) of a region R defined by a curve f(x) and some interval $a \le x \le b$.
- One way to calculate the area would be to divide the interval $a \le x \le b$ into n subintervals of length Δx and then approximate the region with a series of rectangles, where the base of each rectangle is Δx and the height is f(x) at the midpoint of that interval.

Reimann Sum

- Suppose we want to determine the area A(R) of a region R defined by a curve f(x) and some interval $a \le x \le b$.
- One way to calculate the area would be to divide the interval $a \le x \le b$ into n subintervals of length Δx and then approximate the region with a series of rectangles, where the base of each rectangle is Δx and the height is f(x) at the midpoint of that interval.
- ightharpoonup A(R) would then be approximated by the area of the union of the rectangles, which is given by

$$S(f, \Delta x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i) \Delta x$$

and is called a Riemann sum.



Thinking of integrals as summations

As we decrease the size of the subintervals Δx , making the rectangles "thinner," we would expect our approximation of the area of the region to become closer to the true area.

Thinking of integrals as summations

As we decrease the size of the subintervals Δx , making the rectangles "thinner," we would expect our approximation of the area of the region to become closer to the true area. This gives the limiting process

$$A(R) = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i) \Delta x$$

Thinking of integrals as summations

As we decrease the size of the subintervals Δx , making the rectangles "thinner," we would expect our approximation of the area of the region to become closer to the true area. This gives the limiting process

$$A(R) = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i) \Delta x$$

▶ Riemann Integral: If for a given function f the Riemann sum approaches a limit as $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$, then that limit is called the Riemann integral of f from a to b. Formally,

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i) \Delta x$$

- ▶ **Definite Integral**: We use the notation $\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$ to denote
 - the definite integral of f from a to b.

- ▶ **Definite Integral**: We use the notation $\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$ to denote
 - the definite integral of f from a to b. In words, the definite

integral $\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$ is the area under the "curve" f(x) from

x = a to x = b.

###The fundamental Theorem(s) of calculus

► First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus: Let the function f be bounded on [a, b] and continuous on (a, b). Then the function

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(s)ds, \quad a \le x \le b$$

has a derivative at each point in (a, b) and

$$F'(x) = f(x), \quad a < x < b$$

Thus, differentiation is the inverse of integration.

Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus: Let the

function f be bounded on [a, b] and continuous on (a, b). Let F be any function that is continuous on [a, b] such that

$$F'(x) = f(x)$$
 on (a, b) . Then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

- ▶ This gives us a procedure to calculate a "simple" definite integral $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$:
 - 1. Find the indefinite integral F(x).
 - 2. Evaluate F(b) F(a).

$$\int_{1}^{3} 3x^2 dx =$$

$$\int_{1}^{3} 3x^{2} dx = 3 \left(\frac{1}{3} x^{3} \right) \Big|_{1}^{3}$$

$$\int_{1}^{3} 3x^2 dx = 3\left(\frac{1}{3}x^3\right) \Big|_{1}^{3}$$

$$=(3)^3-(1)^3=26$$

$$\int\limits_{-2}^{2}e^{x}e^{e^{x}}dx=$$

$$\int_{-2}^{2} e^{x} e^{e^{x}} dx = e^{e^{x}} \Big|_{-2}^{2}$$

 $\int_{-2}^{2} e^{x} e^{e^{x}} dx = e^{e^{x}} \Big|_{-2}^{2}$

 $=e^{e^2}-e^{e^{-2}}$

$$\int_{-2}^{2} e^{x} e^{e^{x}} dx = e^{e^{x}} \Big|_{-2}^{2}$$
$$= e^{e^{2}} - e^{e^{-2}} = 1617.033$$

 $\int_{-2}^{2} e^{x} e^{e^{x}} dx = e^{e^{x}} \Big|_{-2}^{2}$

Properties of Definite Integrals:

1. There is no area below a point.

$$\int_{a}^{a} f(x)dx = 0$$

Properties of Definite Integrals:

1. There is no area below a point.

$$\int_{a}^{a} f(x)dx = 0$$

2. Reversing the limits changes the sign of the integral.

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = -\int_{b}^{a} f(x)dx$$

Properties of Definite Integrals:

1. There is no area below a point.

$$\int_{a}^{a} f(x)dx = 0$$

2. Reversing the limits changes the sign of the integral.

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = -\int_{b}^{a} f(x)dx$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} [\alpha f(x) + \beta g(x)] dx = \alpha \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx + \beta \int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} [\alpha f(x) + \beta g(x)] dx = \alpha \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx + \beta \int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx$$

 $\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx + \int_{b}^{c} f(x)dx = \int_{a}^{c} f(x)dx$





$$\int\limits_{1}^{1} 3x^2 dx = x^3 \Big|_{1}^{1}$$

$$\int_{1}^{1} 3x^{2} dx = x^{3} \Big|_{1}^{1}$$
$$= (1)^{3} - (1)^{3} = 0$$

 $\int_{0}^{4} (2x+1)dx = 2\int_{0}^{4} xdx + \int_{0}^{4} 1dx$

 $\int_{0}^{4} (2x+1)dx = 2\int_{0}^{4} xdx + \int_{0}^{4} 1dx$

 $= x^2 \Big|_0^4 + x \Big|_0^4$

 $\int_{0}^{4} (2x+1)dx = 2\int_{0}^{4} xdx + \int_{0}^{4} 1dx$

 $= x^2 \Big|_0^4 + x \Big|_0^4$

= (16-0) + (4-0) = 20

$$\int_{0}^{4} (2x+1)dx = 2 \int_{0}^{4} x dx + \int_{0}^{4} 1 dx$$

 $= x^2 \Big|_0^4 + x \Big|_0^4$

= (16-0) + (4-0) = 20

What would happen if we reversed 4 and 0?

 $\int_{-2}^{0} e^{x} e^{e^{x}} dx + \int_{0}^{2} e^{x} e^{e^{x}} dx =$

 $\int_{-2}^{0} e^{x} e^{e^{x}} dx + \int_{0}^{2} e^{x} e^{e^{x}} dx = e^{e^{x}} \Big|_{-2}^{0} + e^{e^{x}} \Big|_{0}^{2}$

 $\int_{2}^{0} e^{x} e^{e^{x}} dx + \int_{0}^{2} e^{x} e^{e^{x}} dx = \left. e^{e^{x}} \right|_{-2}^{0} + \left. e^{e^{x}} \right|_{0}^{2}$

 $=e^{e^0}-e^{e^{-2}}+e^{e^2}-e^{e^0}$









 $\int_{0}^{0} e^{x} e^{e^{x}} dx + \int_{0}^{2} e^{x} e^{e^{x}} dx = \left. e^{e^{x}} \right|_{-2}^{0} + \left. e^{e^{x}} \right|_{0}^{2}$

 $= e^{e^0} - e^{e^{-2}} + e^{e^2} - e^{e^0}$

 $=e^{e^2}-e^{e^{-2}}=1617.033$

Solve the following definite integrals:

$$\int_{-1}^{1} x^3 dx$$

2.

$$\int_{0}^{0.1} x^2 dx$$

$$\int_{0}^{9} 1 dx$$

$$\int_{1}^{9} 2y^{5} dy$$

6.

$$\int_{-1}^{0} 3x^2 - 1dx$$

7.

$$\int_{-1}^{1} 14 + x^2 dx$$

$$\int_{1}^{-1} 14 + x^2 dx$$

$$\int_{1}^{2} \frac{1}{x} dx$$

11.

$$\int_{1}^{2} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$$

 $\int\limits_{2}^{\infty}\frac{12}{t^{2}}dt$

- - $\int_{3}^{y^{2}} \sqrt{z} dz$